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In Science for November 14 Dr. George E. Hale, a distinguished American astronomer, Director of the Mt. Wilson Solar Observatory, had a very interesting paper entitled National Academies and the Progress of Research. What he has to say of research among the Greeks is well worth quotation in extenso. At any rate the perusal of Dr. Hale's words has given me comfort as an offset to the assertions of a well known professor of history, who, I am informed, repeatedly declares that the achievements of the Greeks have been very much overrated. In THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 2.122-123 Professor M. W. Humphreys discussed briefly Greek Discoveries and Inventions; in 3.220-221 Dr. T. L. Shear reviewed Mahaffy's What have the Greeks done for Modern Civilization? In both cases our readers had before them the utterances of direct students of the Classics. In 5.57-58, however, I called attention to the high esteem in which Professor D'Arcy Wentworth Thompson, Professor of Natural History in University College, Aberdeen, held Aristotle, as being "all things that we mean by 'naturalist' or 'biologist'". In the succeeding issue, 5.65-66, I called attention to Professor Thompson's translation of Aristotle's *Historia Animalium*; this translation, both in itself and in its notes and discussions, is a most valuable contribution by a scientist to classical philology, and a further proof of that scientist's high regard for Aristotle. In the current year Professor Thompson published, through the Oxford University Press, a pamphlet labelled *On Aristotle as a Biologist*, with a Prooemion on Herbert Spencer. To such utterances as Professor Thompson's or as Professor Hale's, to which it is time now to return, the classical student may attach especial weight, as coming from those who have no professional or vocational temptation to overestimate the value of the contributions which the classical peoples made to human thought and to man's intellectual development. Professor Hale writes as follows:

THE Academy of Plato . . . was at once a school of instruction and a society for the development of new knowledge. Here he discussed his philosophy with associates and students, while it was still in the making, thus bringing them under the stimulating influence of fresh thought, developing and expanding from day to day. Writing of the Old Academy, which included the schools of Plato and his immediate successors, Cicero remarks <De Finibus 5.7>: "Their writings and method contain all lib-

eral learning, all history, all polite discourse; and besides they embrace such a variety of arts, that no one can undertake any noble career without their aid. . . . In a word the academy is, as it were, the workshop of every artist".

The Old Academy was thus the predecessor of our modern academies of science and of our universities as well. Its worldwide influence, while of course primarily due to the brilliant thinkers of the day, may certainly be ascribed in part to the fact that its instruction was given in an atmosphere charged with the stimulus of original thought and constantly broadening ideas. The great success of the German universities, and the outflow from them of the spirit of research into every phase of German life and thought, is undoubtedly due in the largest measure to the application of this principle. Fortunately for the intellectual advancement of the United States, the recognition of its importance has already permeated most of our advanced schools, and is rapidly gaining ground in the minds of their governing boards of trustees.

Aristotle, called by Plato "the mind of my school", came from a family of physicians, and thus inherited a taste for experimental knowledge. To him we owe the beginnings of exact science and the organization of research on a large scale. Thanks to his influence with his pupil Alexander the Great, he was able to command the immense sum of eight hundred talents for the purchase of books and other expenses involved in the preparation of his treatise on zoology. More than this, a thousand men throughout Asia and Greece studied under his direction the life and habits of birds and beasts, fishes and insects¹. The territories conquered by Alexander were carefully surveyed, by measuring the position of terrestrial objects with respect to stars². Although Aristotle maintained the fixity of the earth, and supposed comets and the Milky Way to be in its higher atmosphere, his reasoning in many astronomical problems was sound, as when he concluded that the earth must be spherical because its shadow on the eclipsed moon is always curved³. Thus his studies of natural science foreshadowed the work of the present-day investigator and led to the most far-reaching results.

After his time a gradual division of labor ultimately separated investigations in natural science from the speculations of the philosophers. In Sicily, Egypt and the islands of the Mediterranean true scientific research, in the strictly modern sense, de-

¹ Wheeler, Alexander the Great, p. 37. The strict accuracy of these assertions, which were made by several classical authors, is questioned by Grote and also by Humboldt, who nevertheless concede that Aristotle received from both Philip and Alexander the most liberal support in procuring immense zoological material from Grecian territories and in the collection of books. *Cosmos*, Sabine's trans., Vol. II, p. 158.

² Bossut, *Histoire des Mathématiques*, Vol. 1, p. 116.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 117.

veloped with remarkable rapidity, while in the old Lyceum at Athens the philosophy of reasoning and dialectics, caring little for physical causes, was devoted exclusively to the soul.

A deep-seated belief that the senses are deceptive, and the natural impatience of the Greeks, inclining them toward reasoning and speculation rather than the slow and laborious processes of observation and experiment, had first to be overcome.⁴ But in the third century B.C. the greatest geometer of antiquity, Archimedes, taught at Syracuse a system of astronomy closely resembling that of Copernicus, founded the science of mechanics in his treatise *De Aequiponderantibus*, and devised some of the fundamental experimental methods of modern physics. At the same period Aristarchus of Samos made a first determination of the distance of the sun from the earth and held that "the center of the universe was occupied by the sun, which was immovable, like other stars, while the earth revolved around it". This view was also taught by Seleucus the Babylonian, but it was rejected by Ptolemy, the most celebrated astronomer of his day.

Of all the ancient prototypes of the modern academy, the great Museum of Alexandria holds the first place. Founded by Ptolemy Soter, whose preference would have confined its work to the moral and political sciences, its scope soon expanded under the influence of Ptolemy Philadelphus and the pressure of circumstances, until it embraced the whole field of knowledge.⁵ Here almost all of the important results of Greek science were obtained in a period covering nine centuries. The museum established by Ptolemy was an extensive palace, housing the brilliant company of scholars and investigators gathered together from all parts of Greece. . . .

Ptolemy Philadelphus collected strange animals from many lands, and sent Dionysius on exploring expeditions to the most remote regions.⁶ But while the investigators of the museum doubtless profited by these collections and explorations for their studies in natural history and geography, Matter finds no evidence that at this period the museum possessed either a distinct natural history collection or a zoological park,⁷ though the study of medicine was encouraged, and a great art collection was developed.

The rising tide of science soon brought all the material requisites of research, supplementing the great library of 700,000 volumes by the instruments, laboratories and collections demanded by the astronomer, the physicist and the student of biology. A botanical garden, a zoological menagerie, an anatomical laboratory and an astronomical observatory in the Square Porch, provided by Ptolemy Euergetes with an equinoctial and a solstitial armillary, stone quadrants, astrolabes and other instruments, illustrate the nature of the extensive equipment provided. The work of the Alexandrian school thus continued to grow, until it embraced all of natural and physical science, medicine, mathematics, astronomy and geography, history, philosophy, religion, morals and politics. It is significant that an institution which in many respects would be regarded as a model to be striven for to-day, should have developed at so early a period in the history of civilization.⁸

⁴ Weber, *History of Philosophy*, Thilly's trans., p. 133 et seq.

⁵ See Humboldt, *Cosmos*, Vol. II., p. 309, and notes, p. cix.

⁶ Matter, *Histoire de l'Ecole d'Alexandrie*, 2d ed., Vol. II., Introduction, p. v.

⁷ *Ibid.*, Vol. I., p. 158.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 159.

⁹ Draper, *Intellectual Development of Europe*, Vol. I., p. 188.

To the Alexandrian school we owe the Geometry of Euclid, and his treatises on Harmony, Optics and Catoptrics; the hydraulic screw and some of the mathematical and physical discoveries of Archimedes of Syracuse, who spent part of his time in Egypt; the mathematical, astronomical, geographical and historical investigations of Eratosthenes, who first endeavored to determine the circumference of the earth by measuring the difference of latitude and the distance between Alexandria and Syene, and wrote on such subjects as the geological submersion of lands, the elevation of ancient sea-beds, and the opening of the Dardanelles and the Straits of Gibraltar; the Conic Sections of Apollonius; the mathematical and astronomical researches of Hipparchus, whose discovery of the precession of the equinoxes was based on observations made five hundred years previously by Timochares at Alexandria; and the great *Syntaxis* of Ptolemy, translated as the *Almagest* by the Arabians, which stood as a commanding authority in Europe for nearly fifteen hundred years. Founded on the geocentric hypothesis, the *Almagest* is nevertheless replete with astronomical methods and observations of the widest range and significance, and includes Ptolemy's discovery of the lunar evection, a rough determination of the distance from the earth to the sun, a masterly discussion of the motions of the planets, and a catalogue of 1,022 stars. These remarkable advances, which include only a fraction of the enormous scientific product of the Alexandrian school, were supplemented by equally striking contributions to literature and art. Philology, criticism and the history of literature became sciences, while the coming together of Buddhists, Jews, Greeks and Egyptians, with the most diverse beliefs, led to the development of comparative theology. Of the literary works of the Alexandrian school the Septuagint and the poems of Theocritus are perhaps the most widely known.⁹ C.K.

A WORKING LIBRARY FOR STUDENTS OF THE CLASSICS

Introductory Note

Since the primary object in preparing this list of books is to encourage teachers to read widely in the Classics, a considerable portion of it is composed of those explanatory editions in English which seem to give the clearest interpretation of the author's meaning. A number of critical editions have also been included, for the sake of those who may wish to know more about the scholarly work that has been done on certain authors than the ordinary editions offer. Foreign books receive a place only when there is no adequate substitute in English.

Wide reading is the simplest and yet most arduous method of insuring the growth in scholarship that is so essential for every teacher who aims at being successful. It has been estimated that the whole range of first class Latin literature can be read in eight years by means of reading only three pages of new Latin every day, and in twice that time the same desirable result can be obtained for Greek literature. The teacher should certainly aim at an early reading of the whole, or at least of the major

¹⁰ See the works of Matter, Montucla, Bossut, Whewell, Draper and Weber.

part, of the authors he is teaching, and following this he should read broadly in other authors in the same or related departments of the literature. Individual taste must after that prescribe an order for reading, but the essential thing is to keep reading. Some scholarly work should also be done, either by personal investigation or by mastering special topics or critical editions.

The following order of reading (based on relative value for the teacher) is suggested. In Greek: Homer, Xenophon, Herodotus, Thucydides, Aristophanes, Lysias, Plato, Demosthenes, Sophocles, Aeschylus, Euripides, Plutarch's Lives, Arrian, Pausanias, Strabo; in Latin: Cicero, Vergil, Caesar, Horace, Sallust, Ovid, Pliny the Younger, Tacitus, Catullus, Tibullus. For early reading the following order is suggested. In Greek: Homer (complete), Xenophon (Memorabilia, Hellenica), Herodotus (Books 1, 2, 6, from Chapter 94, 8), Thucydides (Books 1, 2, 6, 7), Lysias (complete), Aristophanes (Acharnians, Knights, Clouds), Plato (Phaedo, Gorgias, Republic), Demosthenes (Philippics, De Corona, De Falsa Legatione), Plutarch (Themistocles, Pericles, Artaxerxes, Cicero, Caesar); in Latin: Cicero (Pro Roscio Amerino, in Verrem 4, 5, Pro Sestio, Philippics, Tusculan Disputations 1, 5, Somnium Scipionis, De Officiis, De Senectute, De Amicitia, Brutus, Selected Letters), Vergil (complete), Caesar (complete), Horace (complete), Sallust (complete), Ovid (selections from Metamorphoses, Fasti), Tacitus (Agricola, Germania, selections from the Histories and the Annals), Pliny (selected Letters), Catullus and Tibullus, Quintilian (Books 10, 12). The Greek Testament should be read early, and perhaps also the Latin Vulgate.

The attempt has been made to avoid duplicating, but where two or more books on the same topic are included, because each has its special features, they are named together in italics. Small Roman type indicates books which, for reasons of price or the language in which they are written, may be substituted for those immediately above them in the list. An asterisk is placed before those which should be obtained early in one's teaching experience. Those who wish a fuller bibliography on any classical subject should consult Mayor's Guide to the Choice of Classical Books, New Supplement, 1879-1896 (London).

The price of foreign books is given in Marks (1 M = 25 cts.) or Francs (1 F = 20 cts.), and represents the price unbound. These may be obtained, bound or unbound, from several agents in New York and Boston, or connection may readily be established with booksellers in Germany, especially in Leipzig.

The following abbreviations for the names of publishers and agents are used: A = D. Appleton and Co.; AB = Allyn and Bacon; ABC = American

Book Co.; C = Cambridge University Press; G = Ginn and Co.; H = D. C. Heath and Co.; HM = Houghton Mifflin Company; L = Longmans, Green and Co.; LB = Little, Brown and Co.; M = The Macmillan Company; O = Oxford University Press, Clarendon Press; P = G. P. Putnam's Sons; S = Benj. H. Sanborn and Co; Scr = Charles Scribner's Sons; T = B. G. Teubner; W = Weidmann (Berlin).

I TEXTS

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¹G. E. Stechert and Co., 151 West 25th Street, New York City, have offered to supply new books at 22 cents per Mark, second-hand books at 27 cents per Mark. S = Shilling. C.K.

The *Loeb Classical Library*, now in course of publication by the Macmillan Company, will cover much of the best classical literature from Homer to the Middle Ages. The original text and a good translation, usually in prose, will appear on opposite pages. About 30 volumes have appeared, and others appear each month. The library, when completed, will contain over 200 volumes. See THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 5.126-127. A catalogue may be obtained from the publishers. The volumes sell at \$1.50 each. The Oxford University Press also publishes a series of excellent translations, at \$1.00 per volume.

II EDITIONS AND TRANSLATIONS

A Greek

- Aeschines* against Ctesiphon. Richardson G. \$1.40
- Aeschylus*. The Seven Tragedies. School ed. (best explanatory ed.). T.1888-1903 M14.00
- Agamemnon, Choephoroi, Eumenides, Persians, Septem. Sidgwick.O. 1887-1903 each \$.75
- Prometheus Bound. Allen.....G. 1891 \$1.40
- Aeschylus* in English Verse. Way. 3 vols.M. each \$1.25
- Agamemnon. With Translation. Verrall M. \$3.40
- Aristophanes*. Editions by Rogers. (With spirited verse translations, introductions and good notes. For early reading the *Acharnians*, *Knights*, *Birds*, and *Frogs* are recommended).....M. each \$3.25
- Acharnians*. With prose translation and commentary. Starkie.....M. \$3.40
- The *Clouds*. With prose translation and commentary. StarkieM. \$4.00
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- Clouds*. Humphreys.G. 1885 \$1.40
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- Ethics*. Burnet (very full notes explanatory of philosophy).London, 1900 \$15
- Ethics* translated by Welldon. M. 1882 \$2.00
- On the Constitution of Athens. Translated by Kenyon.....M. 1891 \$1.10
- Politics*. Books 1-5. Susemihl and Hicks (critical introduction with analysis, extensive commentary chiefly on thought) M. 1895 \$6.00
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(To be continued)

REVIEW

Tod, Marcus Niebuhr. *International Arbitration Amongst the Greeks*. Oxford: Clarendon Press (1913). Pp. 193. \$2.00.

This essay, awarded the Conington prize at Cambridge University in 1912, is a thorough piece of scholarly work, well organized and attractively written. The first chapter contains references to eighty-two extant inscriptions dealing with cases of arbitration or mediation, with a brief summary of each case. The Greek texts are not given. For purposes of completeness, the author might well have included in this list the references to arbitrated cases and arbitration agreements in interstate treaties which are to be found in the Greek and the Roman historians. The exclusion of these has, however, the advantage that our attention is centered upon the primary documentary evidence alone, the

inscriptions in which the arbitral decisions were published. Professor Tod has arranged and discussed his material clearly and concisely in chapters upon the method of appointment of the arbitrating tribunal, the types of disputes submitted to arbitration, the procedure before the courts established, the character of the documents submitted in evidence and the method of examining witnesses, and the manner in which the award of the arbitral court was recorded and published. The final chapter gives a survey of the development and influence of arbitration in the Greek world.

In 1894 M. Victor Berard published his thesis *De Arbitrio inter liberas Graecorum Civitates*, which Mr. Tod (p. VI) rightly characterizes as "in many respects unworthy of the eminent French scholar". It contained the Greek texts of the arbitration inscriptions then extant. In addition to these Professor Tod has studied the numerous inscriptions found and published since that date. I do not understand why he has omitted the appointment of the city of Mitylene by the cities of Teos and Lebedos to settle their outstanding civil cases at the time of the proposed *synoecism* of the two cities by Antigonos Monophthalmos (Dittenberger, *Sylloge Inscriptionum Graecarum*, I², No. 177). Of the same type is the agreement made between the two Boeotian cities Orchomenos and Euaimon (*Mittheilungen des deutschen Archäologischen Instituts* 34. 237 ff.) at the time of their amalgamation. They agree to refer certain boundary disputes for arbitration to the neighboring city of Heraia. This is also omitted by Mr. Tod.

In his thesis upon Greek arbitration Berard seriously questioned the good faith of the Greek states in referring their disputes to arbitration. He rather regarded arbitration as an accepted piece of political trickery employed by the states interested in order to gain time at some period of crisis, with little intention of abiding by the decision of the arbitrating body. In an article upon the subject printed in *The Classical Journal* of 1907, the present reviewer protested against the injustice and the historical incorrectness of this statement. He is pleased to find that the new evidence assembled in Mr. Tod's book, and a more complete and painstaking study, prove the folly of Berard's attitude (Tod, pp. 184-188). Mr. Tod easily disposes of the statement, in my article cited above, that the Greeks were the first nation to employ arbitration. He cites the case of two Sumerian cities which referred a feud to the king of Kish, about 4000 B.C.—a slight error on my part of some 3000 years!

This study was well worth doing and is well done, and is well worth reading. The subject is very important to anyone who wishes to understand the Greek attitude upon inter-state relations.

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W. L. WESTERMANN.